What About Competition?

EDUARD C. LINDEMAN

PARENTS and teachers of the sensitive type are perennially disturbed by the problem of competition. To the non-sensitive no problem is presented; they accept what is current in the world about them and easily incorporate whatever popular notion of competition exists into their teaching. This essay, which represents an attempt to indicate how one might reason and reflect about competition, is directed toward those adults whose feelings about life and experience are subtle, those who continue to believe that something finer may be created out of the distinctively human substance in human nature.

I assume that the older biological argument on behalf of the necessity for competition is no longer sustained. Very few people are so naive as to believe that isolated instances of "struggle for existence" among animals offer proof that men must also compete with each other. Kropotkin has shown that equally convincing examples of "mutual aid" may be found among animals.*

And, Huxley long ago pointed out that reasoning from animal to human life in order to prove the universality of the "tooth-and-claw" principle was invariably an excuse for doing something which could not be justified on other grounds; his arguments have never been successfully refuted. During war time, of course, men return to these biological analogies, seeking again a rational support for behavior which is essentially irrational. Even now, as war clouds once more hover over certain areas of our world, one may hear the faint reverberations of the ancient shibboleths; popular writers are beginning to prophesy when the next *necessary* war will appear.

> *"This thou must always bear in mind, what is the nature of the whole, and what is my nature, and how this is related to that, and what kind of a part it is of what kind of a whole, and that there is no one who hinders thee from always doing and saying the things which are according to the nature of which thou art a part."*
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> —MARCUS AURELIUS.

A newer argument on behalf of the necessity of competition arises from an altogether different source. Adherents of so-called "new psychology" are beginning to teach a fresh competitive theory. They discover that many of our personality unadjustments are due to an artificial environment; under these conditions human beings become "soft"; they practice the arts of evasion, escapes from reality; they pretend to cooperate because they fear the consequences of competition. Clients are instructed to precipitate conflicts, to set the stage for competitive encounters in order to overcome certain repressions. Civilization itself, according to Dr. Freud, is a kind of social disease against which individuals who wish to be strong must use prophylactics. Self-assertion becomes necessary, not because man is an animal, but precisely because he has become too human; his civilization with its multifarious conveniences coddles him, deprives him of appropriate ego-expression. (The German philosopher, Nietzsche, projected a similar theory, although his reasoning proceeded from a different source; he insisted that the only true joys of life were associated with competition, struggle and the exercise of power.)

This newer psychological argument on behalf of competition is certainly more valid than that based upon biological analogy. But both positions represent overstatements of the case and need correction. A portion of the

difficulty which inheres in our problem is due to our careless use of language. Our important words appear to go in pairs, in opposites; this feature of language tends to make our ideas much too absolute. The following list of terms, related to our present discussion, may serve to illustrate my point:

struggle	acquiescence
conflict	peace
competition	cooperation
antagonism	association
opposition	collaboration
individual	society
disagreement	concurrence
resistance	participation
chaos	order
discord	harmony
hostility	reconciliation
selfishness	altruism

The mere statement of these words as opposites elicits a moralistic response; the reader is likely to say at once that the terms in the left hand column are negative, are representative of "bad" conduct, while those at the right are positive, representative of "good" conduct. But this judgment will not fit a specific case. In actual experience one soon discovers that these apparent opposites are merely end-terms in a series; between "conflict" and "peace," for example, lie numerous grades or degrees into which actual situations might fall. No "conflict" is completely bad and no "peace" is wholly good. Conflict and peace are parts of a necessary whole, and it is toward the whole that our attention needs to be directed. In real experience we discover that cooperation is invariably preceded by competition, that experience itself is a continuing series of events in which both competitive and cooperative activities occur and recur. And, once we begin to realize that much of our faulty behavior results from a careless use of language, we have taken the first step toward psychological realism. We then begin to see that our haphazard judgments about competition and cooperation have prevented us from viewing these aspects of behavior as parts of an ongoing whole.**

Complex of Reality

We live in a world in which both competition and cooperation are facts of experience. Children will need to adjust to this sort of a world. How, then, are we to aid them? Where is emphasis to be placed? In what direction is our world moving, and for what types of conduct should children be prepared? These are, I take it, the kinds of queries which agitate parents and teachers. Categorical answers cannot be given but I may at least point out some of the items which seem to me integral to a general approach to the problem.

Guideposts to Social Adjustment

As parents and as teachers we may begin by considering the following propositions:

(1) There are varieties of competition and varieties of cooperation; whether competition is "bad" or cooperation "good" depends upon the goal or end in view, and the means employed. Superficial, pretended cooperation may do more harm than candid, realistic competition.

(2) New ways of living arise because old ways have been challenged; competition is the beginning of change; complete submissiveness means mediocrity, stagnation.

(3) The methods of competitive living are easily learned because these are derived from our more primitive background; the methods of cooperative living are more subtle and more difficult, and consequently need more attention.

(4) The world appears to be moving in the direction of collectivism; if children are to adjust themselves satisfactorily to this emerging world, they will need to know the arts of cooperative living.

(5) Competition in the interest of acquisition of "things" leads toward injustice and fundamental inequalities; competition in the interest of "higher goals" leads to alertness and experimentation.

(6) A healthy egoism, that is, self-knowledge, awareness of one's capacities, ability to make effective use of one's talents, is preliminary to dynamic altruism; before one can become an effective cooperator one must have something to give; this can only be developed through free competition.

(7) Legal efforts to control unfair competition in industry and business are indicators of the underlying difficulties which arise when individuals compete for "things"; the same difficulties occur in certain sports where the end sought is not dissimilar. Society, the whole, always resorts to means of protecting itself against unrestrained competition.

(8) The cooperative way of life often appears as romantic sentimentalism; its devotees frequently call their conduct "democratic" when it should be called "inefficient." On the other hand, those who secure power through competitive means often call their conduct "efficient" when it should be called "ruthless."

(9) Wherever competitive methods are exclusively applied to a given situation one discovers that competitors easily lose the capacity to criticize the

means they use; under such circumstances they cannot be trusted; they need to be supervised by referees, umpires and judges.

(10) Cooperative methods cannot wholly supplant competitive ones; nor can they even become sufficiently effective to strike a balance until parents and educators come to realize that special learnings, skills and techniques are involved.

Getting What We Really Want

These maxims or propositions appear somewhat dogmatic; the purpose here is to state a generalized principle in such form as to evoke in the reader a critical response. Each of these propositions should suggest examples in experience: When, by way of illustration, do children seem to find it necessary to resort to an impartial referee? Why do their own resources for social control fail in such situations? Is it true that persons who have concentrated on the acquisition of "things" have thereby created fundamental inequalities among people? Are those persons who contend for a cooperative society frequently sentimentalists? These are the kinds of questions which may be readily suggested by the above propositions. A critical examination of this sort would normally evolve as an appraisal of one's own attitudes and conduct, and from this point onward reflection might continue until the entire social environment has been scrutinized.

What kind of a society do we really desire? This is the primary query, because it seems entirely probable that we can achieve very nearly what we want in this respect; there is nothing mystical about society, nothing predetermined. If we wish a society of a few strong individuals to whom the remainder are submissive and obedient, we can, as Italy has demonstrated, have such a social structure almost overnight. If, on the contrary, we desire a society in which all power is derived from the active consent of the governed, such a consummation is possible. But, and this is one of the important "buts," the latter result cannot be accomplished with ease; this goal involves a redirection of motivations and incentives, a re-education of wishes and desires. The failure of most cooperative societies may be traced to failure to make this distinction: the pathway toward dictatorship is short, direct and simple while the road toward democracy is long, circuitous and difficult.

If, then, we really want a world in which competition is "put in its place," a world in which mutual concern for the whole becomes our goal, we shall need to practice as well as teach new virtues. Cooperative living cannot be achieved, for example, until we have acquired more capacity for freedom; thus far we have been chiefly concerned about getting free *from* some form of bondage; henceforth our task is to be free *with*, to find freedom in the creation of a social whole. We shall also need new extensions of tolerance, not merely for the other person's opinions and attitudes but for his essential difference. Under competitive rules one never knows whether the appropriate person is in the right position or not; if his prestige is based upon wealth and its concomitant power, we are usually justified in believing that some other person might have fulfilled his functions more effectively. In a cooperative society influence and prestige would be derived from functions, not from heredity or wealth. A redistribution of egos in terms of functional capacities would require a degree of tolerance for which we are now wholly unprepared.

And, finally, in order to achieve a world in which cooperation becomes the habitual way of life we shall need to practice a new kind of wholeness. At present one may live as a number of distinct and separate selves, depending upon the social context. One may, for example, earn one's wealth through ruthless competition in business and then spend its surplus on behalf of world peace. One may speak of blessed fellowship on Sunday and plunge into damnable exploitation of others on Monday. One may be a "good fellow" at the club and a veritable czar in the family. All of these fractional and antithetical selves are merely reflections of the confusion in our society. We need not, in order to invent excuses, select individuals for opprobrium since we are all participants in the same process.

As a civilization we are still in the "squabbling" stage, far from grown-up maturity. When we shall have sensed the futility of false competition for the wrong goals we shall proceed with courage to revamp our institutions, especially our schools and families, in such manner as to prove that "we are made for cooperation, like feet, like hands, like eyelids, like the rows of the upper and lower teeth. To act against one another then is contrary to nature."

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* A striking illustration of two types of behavior among sea birds inhabiting the Faeroes Islands has recently come to my attention. Writing in the *National Geographic Magazine*, issue of November, 1930, Mr. Leo Hansen, speaking of sea parrots, says: "The male is the chief, although not the sole, forager for the minnows on which the family feeds. If he should be caught or killed, another male bird will take his place at the nest; if the mother bird is killed, another hen will come; if both disappear, a foster parent, male or female, will take charge of the little ones and feed them until they can care for themselves. How different from the lowvies and gulls in the apartments below! If a fuzzy young gull's parents are killed, the other birds on the rock balcony not only fail to feed him, but will push him over the edge to death in the waters hundreds of feet below.

** For those who wish to pursue this logical argument further, I recommend, and with unreserved enthusiasm, Bogoslovsky's volume entitled *The Technique of Controversy*.

Family Attitudes Toward Competition

The home offers especially helpful opportunities for the discovery of positive values in the give-and-take of living with others.

SIDONIE MATSNER GRUENBERG

THOSE who are successful attribute their achievements to the competition of presentday culture. Those who are obliged to acknowledge failure attribute it to the shortcomings of that same culture, to the harshness and injustice of a competitive society, and to its failure to draw out unusual talents. Teachers and parents accordingly seek to encourage the child to greater effort by pointing out to him what others have done. But in every case they make an unwarranted assumption of "equality" which is a source of confusion and suffering. They are inclined to assume either that the conditions of life are equal and that therefore it is the "best man" who wins; or, conversely, that human beings are essentially equal, that everybody can do what anybody has done, and that, therefore, differences of outcome are indications of circumstances that favor some and handicap others.

In the community at large it is possible to pursue and to justify the ideal of political equality without overlooking or contradicting the facts of individual difference; it is not necessary, for the sake of that ideal, to assume organic or intellectual equality. But within the family—which is traditionally concerned with helping each individual to that which he needs for his own fulfillment—it is especially important to recognize the facts of individual differences.

In the shelter of the family the young child may escape for several years the sense of the invidious. Everybody is kind, affection controls conduct, all wishes are gratified, attention from others is subject to call, the dropped toy is promptly restored. As the older child experiences the changes which inevitably attend the advent of new arrivals in the family group, and especially as he makes his entrance into the companionship of other children of his own age, the ego soon becomes conscious of slights and bruises of varying degrees of painfulness. Before long self-doubt and insecurity, with their concomitant self-assertiveness and arrogance, come home to trouble him—in many cases, for the rest of his life.

And yet, we have to accept the fact of conflict as a universal condition of human life and growth. We are keenly aware of this competition in the athletic field, the classroom or the market place. But the conflicts that take place in the family are much more subtle. They are further complicated in our own day by emphasis upon individuality and distinctiveness, in contrast to the traditional acceptance of status as determined by birth. Yet notwithstanding this theoretical acceptance of status, such conflicts within the family have been common throughout the entire stream of history, of which our present culture is a part. But they have not always been recognized. There may indeed be more to the story of Cain and Abel than appears in its traditional incidents.

Modern Versions of an Old Tale

WITH the dissolution of older patterns, the family is thrown into new relations where the inherent strains are more readily seen. The authority of the father as provider has been weakened in many ways. Children, for one thing, have been exposed to opportunities and kinds of learning that the father never experienced; and, for another, various members of the family beside the father have discovered in themselves the capacity to earn money, if not always the opportunity. Children are no longer expected to be merely seen and never heard; what they say often reveals pent-up feelings of resentment or hate against one or another member of the family, affection for whom has been taken for granted. Sex "equality" in the

community at large has brought brothers and sisters into rivalries that were formerly confined to boys only, or to girls only.

Finally, the increasing fluidity and movement in the community has aroused in members of the family aspirations on behalf of the family's prestige. These add their own new internal conflicts by imposing upon individuals demands unrelated to their inner desires. Keeping up with the Joneses has come to symbolize this fatuous rivalry in external display; but it implies also the prodding and nudging for manners, for affectations of speech, for going to college, for a variety of externalized ambitions not always possible of attainment.

Artificial Ambition

PERHAPS the most common family strain is connected with the particular variety of snobbery aroused by our democratic free school system. Family pride drives the child not merely to keep up with a reasonable amount of scholastic performance related to his capacities, his interests and his probable needs; but it also demands of him that he excel the neighbor's child, or his classmates, and that he maintain the family level of academic performance. Indeed, so long as we are quite ignorant of what each child's capacities and interests and probable needs may be, we have no criterion of worthy achievement except the crude competitive one of the race course. But in the end, this tells us only that some children can run faster than others, that some can add faster than others, or shout louder, or hold their breaths under water longer.

Many parents still feel, in greater or less degree, as did the parent of the young William Howard Taft who wrote chidingly on his son's first college grades, "A Taft never gets below ninety." This is hardly more valid than its more generally accepted opposite, "A gentleman's grade is a pass." Some boys and girls rise to such a family challenge; some break their hearts trying to; some revolt, whether they have the ability or not.

In a family where the older of two boys was sufficiently precocious to learn to read and to typewrite through his own efforts at the age of five, the younger one refused even to try to read when he went to school at six. He rationalized his refusal to compete with his brother's unusual performance by declaring that "reading is sissy stuff." Many children find comfort for their self-esteem by disparaging the scholarly individual, and are driven to putting on the "mucker pose" because the family imposes a choice between all or nothing.

Closely related to the common family pride in school performance is the showing off of children's artistic accomplishments. In one family conflict between two sisters developed over the attention which the younger child received for her ability to sing with unusual accuracy and charm. The older girl had her talents and solid accomplishments, but they were not of a kind that the family could exhibit to visitors. In order to avoid the humiliations that always followed comparison between her singing and that of the younger sister, the older child refused to sing even with a group at school. One of the results was her reputation for stubbornness and disobedience, which took long to overcome.

Whatever value in the way of stimulating effort may come from the competitive emphasis in school or on the playground, it remains questionable whether the normal home rivalries can be most profitably cultivated in similar terms. There is a time in the very early stages of development when the child can most easily discover from the activities of the others around him what there is to do, when he can try his hand at a variety of skills and instruments in the course of his exploratory play. Beyond this it would seem desirable to emphasize qualitative differences rather than quantitative ones, avoiding so far as possible the strain of trying to excel one another.

Within the family it ought to be possible to accept both differences in kind and differences in degree without a burden of prejudice.

Unconscious Rivalries

WHILE deliberately pitting one child against another is comparatively obvious, many parents feel they can avoid it. Still situations similar in their effects upon the children involved can arise without anyone's being quite aware of their beginnings or even of their existence. In one family, for instance, rivalry had never been apparent. What was apparent was that, when he was about eight, the youngest of four children began to develop a speech impediment. The pediatrician to whom he was taken to check up on the physical side, advised the mother to look at her children's relationships to each other with a fresh eye. This wise suggestion brought to her attention a situation that had developed so gradually as to escape notice. Up to this point, he had been protected from overcompetition with the older children by the very fact of being the youngest. He was still "the baby", with a charm of

his own. But now this had changed. Not only was this eight-year-old overstimulated and constantly on his toes to keep up to the standard set by his older brothers and his sister, but they, on their side, were teasing him, now that he had left off being "little brother," persistently and all too effectively. A few moments talk apart with the three older children was sufficient, in this family where there was a fine foundation of understanding and confidence, to straighten things out. Their mother suggested, not that teasing stop, but that it be tempered. In four weeks the speech difficulty was a thing of the past.

Characteristic Responses

In reality, conflicts in the family arise unconsciously before competition in the stricter sense comes into play. The struggle of the children for the mother's attention or affection, for example, will often find each one making his approach by a distinct route or method which, though it could perhaps not be called competitive, certainly has elements of rivalry. One child cuddles and flatters; another shows off his prowess; a third knows how to get what he wants by making himself disagreeable and holding his talent as a threat; a fourth, unable perhaps to use any of these devices, withdraws within himself and finds compensation in his play, his fantasy or even in the fantasies of others as recorded in books. These differences themselves probably indicate the presence of constitutional dispositions that will continue throughout life.

Rivalries within the family show themselves in still other relationships—between children and parents on the one hand, and between the parents themselves on the other. Children sometimes suffer from conflicts between the parents, which take the form of competition for the child's affection or favor. The child exposed to such a conflict suffers no matter what the source of it may be, no matter what form it takes. There is usually the effect of insecurity with a distorted sense of values.

Sometimes the father may assert himself by pomposity that serves as substitute for dignity, through his firm hold upon the purse strings, through tales of his clever business dealing or of the important people with whom he associates. The mother may assert herself through excessive attention to the physical comforts and idiosyncrasies of the child, through playing the martyr, through unflattering reflections upon the father's manners or grammar, and so on. After all, other people's families are at least *different*; and one need not look farther than the neighbor's garden fence to find something to reflect upon disparagingly. Such rivalries indicate, of course, some failure of mutual adjustment between the parents; the child becomes the focus of the conflict, and the victim.

The destructive effects of certain kinds of family conflicts sometimes reach the tragic, as when the prolonged domination of one or the other parent obstructs the maturing and liberation of the individual. Such tragic effects naturally raise the question whether the evil outcomes do not more than neutralize the benefits of the family organization; and this is indeed one of the counts in the criticisms often directed against the traditional family as an institution. We have to recognize, however, that, be the results in any given case ever so disastrous, the family normally demands of the growing child, and imposes upon him, precisely those compliances and inhibitions that are primarily essential for social living. It brings about very often undue irritations; it may even repress unduly what might better be fostered and encouraged. The frictions and grindings to which the developing personality is exposed in the home may, nevertheless, bring about the most favorable results, since the conflict is still mitigated by affection, and family continuity helps to give direction and unity to the child's experience as a whole. Even with the loosening of traditional authority, the family still has values for the members of the group, who get through their experience in living together the basis for all social living.

Before All Else

Experience has proved that there is a single fundamental attitude at the basis of all happy and constructive family experience. This is the requirement that parents *accept* their children and themselves, not in lip service or for the sake of duty, but in the deeper reality of their own inner selves. Given this, we can help and guide our children, no matter how they may differ in kind or degree, to appreciation of each other rather than rivalry in things or in accomplishments.

If we start with the assumption that each individual is unique, and that the conditions in which he finds himself are also unique, we cease to expect achievements determined by categories. In its place we shall seek somehow to find a measure for each individual that is for him significant, and at the same time tolerable, if not valuable, to the community. We shall find in rivalries and competitions sources of stimulation to effort, as well as a revelation of potentialities—and limitations. We shall refuse, however, to assess success or failure in terms of personal

comparison. Conflict must be made constructive in that it enables the individual to make the most of himself in his social setting. This view of the function and value of conflict is in sharp contrast to the frequent assumption that the difficulties which the child has to meet and overcome are essential training in meeting the contests for power or possessions of adult life. There is no relationship quite so constructive as that of the family—with all its unique equipment of continuity and deep affection—for bringing out the hidden values, for polishing off the difficult traits of personality in all its members. With the various aids today available for the deeper understanding of personality, the life of a family may become a glamorous adventure in co-operation and adjustment.

Non-Competitive School Grading

Now that "marks" are departing from the traditions parents knew in their own schooldays, they are asking the meaning and purpose of the newer methods of rating school achievement.

WILLARD W. BEATTY

WHILE the modern school is striving to avoid invidious competition and unprofitable comparison between individuals in the evaluation of academic work, and to adjust its program to individual needs, many parents are standing in the way of such a change. Brought up as we adults were in a system of subjective marking where the success or failure of any individual child hung on the opinion of a teacher, unsupported by objective evidence, it is difficult to accept the newer points of view. And yet the preponderance of evidence runs against the older tradition of school marking.

Let us assume, for instance, that your son brings home from the fourth grade this month the usual report card, with percentage grades for each subject: Reading—85; Geography—72; History—98; Arithmetic—65; Spelling—77; Writing—60; Deportment—80.

What is the most you can know about him? He is very good in history, apparently; good in reading; fair in geography and spelling; poor in writing and arithmetic. The deportment is problematical. Whose deportment rates 100 per cent, and who is capable of judging? By what standard were these ratings obtained? What accurate measure does the average school possess for determining accomplishment in reading or writing? What more accurate measure is possessed for history or geography? Or even for spelling or arithmetic, those two subjects where right and wrong would appear to be incontrovertible? About twenty years ago, Dr. Daniel Starch of the University of Wisconsin decided to find out the value of teachers' examinations and teachers' marks. He chose some typical, well prepared, high school examinations together with samples of papers written by students taking these examinations. He had the examination sheets, with instructions for marking the finished papers, duplicated and then secured photostatic copies of the student papers. He chose for his initial experiments examinations in freshman English, geometry and American history.

These facsimiles were mailed to 142 English teachers, 115 teachers of mathematics and 70 teachers of history in high schools throughout the United States. Each teacher was requested to read and mark the paper according to the general directions, but otherwise utilizing the same judgment which would be applied to papers originating in his own school. These people did as requested by Dr. Starch, and returned the papers to him after scoring.

To laymen, and to almost the entire teaching force of the country, the results of Starch's investigation were astounding. The same mathematics paper, identical even to handwriting, blots, erasures and corrections, was graded as low as 28 per cent by one teacher, as high as 90 per cent by another, and by the remaining 113 teachers at practically every intervening grade. With the English paper the results ranged from 50 per cent to 98 per cent, and on the history paper the scores varied from 43 per

cent to 90 per cent. There is also an interesting tendency for the mode* to fall at about the "passing grade."

By that simple experiment the validity of subjective marking was knocked into a cocked hat. It revealed that an honor student in Boston might be classed as an ignoramus in San Francisco with identical evidence to go on. Since 1912 these experiments have been repeated by numerous other psychologists with practically every subject of the curriculum. The results have been invariably the same; no matter what the training, experience, intelligence or educational philosophy of the persons doing the scoring their subjective judgments have repeatedly proved unreliable.

The Personal Equation

Nor content to leave the matter there, teachers of known exactitude have graded identical papers two or three times with an elapse of several days between scoring. While the discrepancies have not always been so glaring, they nevertheless exist in large measure. The general conclusion with regard to subjective measures of all kinds is that in the absence of some scale against which to compare the product to be measured, even the more discerning judgments are worthless.

Recognition of the impossibility of accurate measurement without standards of comparison has led to the development of objective tests and scales so constructed as to produce more uniform results. The Thorndike and Ayres handwriting scales, the Stanford achievement, McCall, Burgess and Monroe tests in silent reading, the Gray oral reading test, and the compass diagnostic tests in arithmetic are a few of the many which have been prepared and standardized under current conditions.

In order that such "standardized" tests may serve their purpose more effectively than the older school examination, experience has shown that at least two conditions must hold. The test must be valid. Validity is the degree to which a test or examination measures what it is intended to measure—that is, in general, the degree to which a test parallels the curriculum and good teaching practice. It must be reliable. Reliability refers to the stability of an estimate of a pupil's ability from one test to another. In other words, equivalent forms of the test should show the same results. Reliability is guaranteed by the objectivity of scoring (the degree to which two people in scoring the same test will secure the same results) and the degree to which the test covers the essential points to be tested.

There is little of positive value to teacher, pupil or parent in qualitative marks divorced from an objective statement of what is being qualified. There may be a vague satisfaction in knowing that the teacher rates Billy as *good* in arithmetic. It certainly doesn't tell us whether he may, therefore, be expected to know compound multiplication. On the other hand, if Sara is reported *poor* in written English, we may experience an uneasy feeling that something ought to be done about it—but "What to do?"

In the public schools of Bronxville, in Westchester County, New York, there is being made a determined effort to answer these objections to the usual grading scheme, and to utilize our information as to "standardized" performance tests, through the development of a constructive substitute, in the form of a "goal card" or objective statement of work being done.

Objective tests similar to those described above, which are in addition diagnostic of weakness, are now in use in the Bronxville Schools in place of the older "essay type" and the subjectively graded examination. Furthermore, tests of this type combined with cumulative reviews are given at the conclusion of each goal card topic. Weaknesses are thus revealed as they develop, and remedial work is supplied at once. No child in the Bronxville Schools can fail a year's work on a single test, which removes the old fear in which final examinations were held.

What the Goal Card Is For

The goal card tries to accomplish certain things. Let us examine one for the third and fourth grade. Its purposes are:

(1) To set forth in objective statements each fundamental ability, skill or piece of knowledge which one may expect the child to acquire in the third and fourth grades. These are "minimum" statements, dealing largely with the traditional learnings of the elementary grades. Each child will learn much more than is here set forth during these two years.

(2) To indicate to the parent, as these goals are mastered, the progress made by his child. Each time the card is sent home for approval, he may see clearly, first, what the child has mastered; second, those skills, abilities or topics on which he is at work, or which are still ahead of him.

(3) From the teacher's comment on the last page, to state whether the child's work during the period under consideration is accelerated, satisfactory or slow—and whether it represents good, bad

*Mode—the point in the graph where the largest number of scores fall.

or indifferent work on the part of the child in consideration of his own native ability, not contrasted to what someone else may be doing.

(4) While the schools welcome at all times opportunities for personal conference between parents and teachers, this comment also serves to notify the parent when the teacher wishes special opportunity for conference and cooperation on behalf of the child's well being.

In the elementary school the goals appearing on each card, and the grade placement of these goals, have been determined so far as possible by scientific investigation. Where experimental evidence is lacking, "best practice" has been followed.

In the junior high school, two influences have been at work in establishing goals. First, the newer concept of the junior high school as an exploratory period, offering to certain children experiences in many fields of activity, which may contribute later to vocational or avocational interests. Second, certain college requirements imposed on the senior high school, which necessarily influence the teaching of the earlier years. The entire trend in public education at the junior high school level is away from certain types of academic learnings in formal grammar and mathematics which have no practical application at any point in child or adult life.

In the senior high school the subjects offered, the ground covered, and the time allotments correspond to college entrance requirements, and pupils satisfactorily completing the work of the Bronxville high school are adequately prepared in four years to enter any American college.

These, then, are some of the things which the goal card means to the child and to the teacher working with him in the school. To parents it can also mean a clearer picture of actual accomplishment and objectives, as well as a more helpful point of view in regard to school success. The goal card encourages the child to do *his own* best rather than to compete with the performances of other children. This is something which parents might well ponder as of value outside, as well as within, the school.

Can't we, as parents, cease thinking of our own children in comparison with Mrs. Smith's brilliant Algernon or Mrs. Robinson's thick headed Tom, and seek to encourage their intellectual growth in terms of bettering their own past performances? Can't we stop urging young Dan to emulate his intellectually brilliant older brother, and study Dan himself for those innate and desirable qualities which may be strengthened by approval and sympathy? Recognizing that there are a few people whose best response is elicited by competition, let us nevertheless build in our schools and homes an atmosphere congenial to the greater number who find adequate satisfaction in solving today's problems as they arise.

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Why Play the Game?

Athletics has been a battle ground of opposing ideals as well as of opposing teams.

ETHEL PERRIN

THE man who smashes his golf club across his knee, because the stroke that lost the match was played with his once favorite mashie, demonstrates in that one act his asocial reactions in a competitive situation. The child whose way is always made smoother by the admiring parent, or the child who is never pitted against his equals, is likely to smash things when he finds himself "up against it." To teach a child to stand up for himself is a favorite expression which belongs to the

father, and to teach him to be a peaceful citizen is the mother's comeback in the argument for and against the encouragement of his natural pugilistic tendencies. Nobody loves a mollycoddle and nobody loves a bully, and the opportunities for pushing a child in either direction are legion.

The Ethics of Sport

To return to the phrase standing up for *himself*, the first mistake is the attitude of the father. If we change this to standing up for *his rights*, we come nearer to what we are after. The boy who accepts the decision of the umpire and thereby makes a home run, bringing glory to himself, to his team, to his school, when he knows that the foot of the boy at home plate was on the base and the ball on him before his slide brought him home, is standing up for himself but not for his rights. Lest, however, we see this point so clearly that the ethics of sports seems an easy thing, remember the precept "never dispute the umpire," and remember if a player can change a decision that was in his favor there might be nothing to interfere with changes in the other direction. Straight thinking in matters of mere child's play is not an easy matter, nor can it be treated lightly, for life situations are on the play field and actions there may later lead to broken golf clubs. It is, of course, possible to picture progress toward the millenium. During its intermediate stages, a player who wrongly received the advantage from a mistaken decision, might be thought of as naturally correcting the mistake. The ultimate in perfection would come when the children could referee their own games. But the millenium is conceded to be a long way off.

For some unknown reason there is a difference in the recognized ethics of various games. In tennis, for instance, it is customary for players to lean backward to be generous in decisions, while in baseball the crowd aids and abets the players in their efforts to "get away with it." With the careful guidance of the behavior of children, the standards of sportsmanship may be elevated.

Enter the Coach

We talk glibly about leading children in the path of self-direction and we start well in supervised free play, but, somewhere along the line, we lose our headway and the "coach" steps into the picture. As a rule he knows very little about the child, or, as he calls him, "the player," but he knows a great deal about "the game." From then on attention seems focussed on the outcome of the game in relation to the coach, the school, the community or even the nation, to say nothing of the newspapers. A story of a winning team is a far better selling proposition than a story of a losing team when we are looking for local color. The interests of the player seem lost among all of this adult interest, and our theories of carry-over values from the play field to the battle of life seem in danger of disappearance. "Return the game to the players" is the cry of forward thinkers in the field of recreation, which is another way of urging progressive education in the secondary schools and colleges.

The socializing influence of athletics is another carry-over we love to talk about. In a recent gathering of some two thousand people professionally interested in the promotion of athletics for children, a high school coach spoke from his heart on the subject of state tournaments. In brief he said, "I take my team to a town—I register them at a hotel—I take them to their rooms—I take them for a walk—I order their dinner—I walk them again—I put them to bed early—I order their breakfast and walk them to the game—and walk them back to the hotel the minute the game is over, to keep them in condition for their next bout in the tournament. Where is this social value you all talk about?" When a very young man who earns his salt by turning out a winning team can talk like this, there is hope.

What Is Worth Playing For?

When gate receipts walk in at the door, love of the game flies out of the window. Players become puppets pulled hither and thither by whoever can make the most publicity, or glory, or money, out of them. The winners are perfectly satisfied with their reward, which is publicity and adulation, but should our progressive education during the earlier years of school life lead to this? The defeated learn to bear up bravely, but isn't even this lesson a bit distorted? I have in mind an eighth grade soccer football team when they lost the final game of the season. They were actually afraid to show up at school the next morning; not afraid of their mates, but of the principal. It is such wrong attitudes that lead children to go to any length to win.

The answer is not the removal of athletics from school life, but extension. We want more, but we want the right kind. Fortunately, the women have seen the possibilities for the great good in the field of athletics for girls, and they are profiting by the mistakes in the overemphasis on winning teams in the boys' program. The Women's Division of the

National Amateur Athletic Federation has adopted the following so-called "platform":

Changing Emphasis

(1) To promote such programs of athletic activities for all girls and women as shall meet their needs, and as shall stimulate interest in activities that are suited to all ages and capacities.

(2) To promote competition that stresses enjoyment of sport and the development of good sportsmanship and character rather than those types that emphasize the making and breaking of records and the winning of championships for the enjoyment of spectators or for the athletic reputation or commercial advantage of institutions and organizations.

(3) To promote interest in awards that have little or no intrinsic value.

(4) To promote educational publicity that places the emphasis upon sport and its values rather than upon the competitors.

(5) To promote the use of suitable costumes.

(6) To promote the provision of sanitary and adequate environment and facilities.

(7) To promote the apportionment of adequate time allotment for a physical education program such as shall meet the needs of the various age groups for growth, development and the maintenance of physical fitness.

(8) To promote the training and employment of women administrators, leaders and officials who are qualified to assume full responsibility for the physical education and recreation of girls and women.

(9) To protect the health of girls and women through the promotion of medical examinations and medical "follow-up" as a basis for participation in athletic competition, and of a system of supervision that shall assure a reasonable and sane attitude toward participation in activities at times of temporary physical unfitness.

(10) To protect athletic activities for girls and women from the dangers attendant upon competition that involves travel, and from their commercialization by interest in gate receipts.

(11) To promote the general adoption of approved rules for the conduct of athletics and games for girls and women.

(12) To promote the study of the existing rules of all sports to the end that they may be changed to meet the specific needs of girls and women.

To return to our coach who unburdened his soul in the professional meeting, he saw that the "social qualities" talked about from the platform are worth having, but he does not see his boys acquiring them. Many schools are adopting an "intra-mural" athletic set-up. This places every boy or girl within the school on a team, and gives them so many tournaments to play in, and keeps them all so busy that there is no time for the intensive training of the top group of athletes. But we hear the argument that this is not life; we should learn to go out from the home surroundings and meet the foreigner in competition.

New Alignments

THERE are several solutions. If the whole school group is participating in athletic contests the cream will naturally rise to the top, and if a sane attitude is held by the administrators there can be a real satisfaction to all concerned if two schools arrange to bring their best representatives together in a friendly game, stressing excellence in skill and team performance rather than featuring individuals. Or, in place of one team chosen to represent its school, there may be many teams from each school pitted against other teams of equal proficiency. This method obviously offers the socializing opportunities of interschool competition to many rather than the few. Or, there is still a third method. In place of having a team from one school playing against a team from another school, the players are mixed and we have a team on which half the players are from one school and half from another, playing against a team made up in the same way. Here we have a situation of real adjustment, and of what is more nearly like a life situation. The players learn to play *with* the foreigner instead of *against* him.

More and Different Games

TRUE, fine points of technique in the game may be sacrificed in this particular type of tournament, but which is of greater importance—the game or the child?

In any well conducted athletic program there should be an opportunity for these three methods of bringing schools together, but the third way is by far the most socializing and also the most difficult to plan. It is called a Play Day, and lends itself to infinite variety in organization. Many schools and numberless activities may be included.

Let us have more athletic competition, then, rather than less; more children playing the game, and that of the sort which leads to the finest character traits and the ability to give true valuation to the important things in life.

Camping and Competition

The out-of-doors has little need of artificial aids to stimulate the child's native interest in its possibilities for adventure.

JOSHUA LIEBERMAN

A RECENT conference of camp directors considered new methods in camping. The discussion of competitive elements in camp programs aroused a particularly earnest response. It was clear the group was troubled.

One director stated the problem very eloquently when he said, "I agree fully that there are many undesirable elements in a competitive program; but what can I do about it? The parents of my campers want certain kinds of results. They want me to teach the children new skills, and familiarize them with the out-of-doors. How can I arouse new interests or cultivate skill without the use of competitive stimuli? Also, the children like prizes; they are something tangible to bring home."

In the discussion that followed, an effort was made to discover the ways in which competitive stimuli were used in camp, and it was found that they affected practically every phase of camp life. In one place or another practically every camp activity offered prizes and awards as incentives. In nature lore special recognitions and rewards were granted to the first campers who knew a given number of trees, flowers or birds; in astronomy, to those who knew a specified number of constellations; in swimming, tennis, woodcraft, canoeing, horseback riding, handicrafts and hiking prizes were given for endurance, form and skill. The same principle was followed in dramatics, music and dancing, and particularly in all athletic activities. In addition to this, many activities were organized on a competitive basis. Those with the greatest dramatic ability were assigned parts in plays, and those possessing the greatest athletic ability were chosen on camp teams. Before a camper could be chosen for a leading position he had to survive much competition.

Frequent competitive games of an intensive nature were stimulated between camp groups, and with the teams of other camps. In many camps the children were divided into two color teams, let us say the *Browns* and the *Greens*. Each camper became a *Brown* or a *Green*, and the two groups were constantly stimulated to "fight it out." Each side developed its own songs, cheers and yells. They were pitted against each other in athletic games, in tennis tournaments, in swimming and field events, in dramatic productions and in attention to daily routines. Camp elections were organized which gave this spirit full play. Each side put up a ticket, and carried on a spirited campaign for its candidates. There were posters, parades and meetings; and the losers were often "ducked" in the lake. Even tent and cabin groups were encouraged to work up cheers and yells, declaring their own virtues and the worthlessness of all other groups.

Cleanliness was obtained by a system of points given each morning after inspection. The tent or cabin group that had the best record received a banner at the end of each week.

In some camps awards were also given for good character, popularity, and so on through every conceivably admirable characteristic.

Paying Too Great a Price

MANY camp directors agree that results obtained by competitive stimuli fall far short of the mark. Children who learn to know a specified number of flowers in order to win a prize very often promptly forget all about flowers as soon as the desired objective is achieved. There is a standard camp joke about the camp child who had been awarded a nature study prize, and responded to a suggestion for further study with, "But I *have* my honors now, so why do I need to learn more?" Or "Do I need to know this for my honor?"

The prize which is intended purely as a stimulus

(*Continued on page* 302)

What of Competition in the Soviet Schools?

JOSETTE FRANK

In a society dedicated to social collectivism, the problem of individual competition must present a challenge, not only to social reconstruction, but to education itself. In any discussion of competition and rivalry, therefore, it is natural to speculate upon how these traditional "incentives to effort" are managed in the schools of Soviet Russia. Strangely enough in the flood of writing on the New Russia little has been said that bears directly on this subject. Nevertheless, there is evident in all of the literature on Russia, both social and economic, a consciousness that to support the new social ideal there is needed a new concept in the education of children.

John Dewey, writing his *Impressions of Soviet Russia,* says:

"In the 'transitional' state of Russia chief significance attaches to the mental and moral change that is taking place . . . . The import of all institutions is educational in its broad sense—that of their effects upon disposition and attitude. Their function is to create habits so that persons will act cooperatively and collectively as readily as now in capitalistic countries, they act 'individualistically.' The same consideration defines the importance and the purpose of the narrower educational agencies, the schools."

Adapting Tried Techniques

In view of this fundamental divergence in the objectives of education, it is interesting that Soviet Russia has taken, as the pattern for its new schools, the so-called "progressive school" of its capitalistic neighbors. The "Dalton Plan," with all its emphasis on the need of individualism, has been adapted by the schools of the Soviet as the basis of their "complex system"—whose object is, nevertheless, to train children in "habits of collectivism." In this seeming incompatability, Dr. Dewey sees the advantage on the side of the Soviet idealogy:

"I do not see how any honest educational reformer in Western countries can deny that the greatest practical obstacle in the way of introducing into schools that connection with social life which he regards as desirable is the great part played by personal competition and desire for private profit in our economic life. . . .The Russian educational situation is enough to convert one to the idea that only in a society based upon the cooperative principle can the ideals of educational reformers be adequately carried into operation."

And yet there is a significant difference of motivation—and hence, necessarily, of techniques. In his book, *The Soviet Challenge to America,* Dr. George S. Counts points out this fundamental difference in the Soviet concept of "freedom":

"The immediate concern of the Communists is freedom for the working class rather than freedom for the individual. . . . . Consequently they would have no patience whatsoever with the kind of freedom often advocated in the progressive schools of America. Such freedom, in their opinion, is not the freedom of nature, as its proponents argue, but the freedom of the gifted, the privileged, and the powerful. Its fruits will be, not socially minded persons sensitive to injustice and devoted to the welfare of the community, but self-centered egoists absorbed in their own affairs and quite ready to exploit legally their less fortunate brothers and sisters. The Russians would contend further, that the only kind of freedom which any individual should have, outside the realm of purely personal matters, is the freedom to serve the group. *From each according to his strength and to each according to his need,* is the principle on which they are endeavoring to build."

Dr. Counts recognizes the traditional function of competition in human living, and is conscious of the challenge which the absence of all competition may constitute. He answers this challenge:

"A common criticism launched against all forms of socialism is that, in the absence of competition among private capitalists bent on personal gain, incentives to great achievement will disappear. Socialistic competition represents the Soviet answer to this argument. . . .Socialistic competition differs from the competition which takes place in capitalistic societies in its motivating purposes. Its object is social welfare rather than personal profit. Those who engage in the competition ordinarily expect no material advancement that is not shared with others.

The reward of the individual, aside from the joys which come from participation in a collective undertaking and the thrills which are generated by a contest, is the feeling of social approval which accompanies success. In the degree that the competition releases new energies among workers, nobody loses: the whole of society wins. . . . .

"The harnessing of education to a great program of construction has also affected the work of the schools. . . .The ideal of promoting individual success, which is so characteristic of education in the United States, is almost entirely absent in the schools of the Soviet Union. The wide gulf that divides the two systems is nowhere more apparent than at this point. In Russia, emphasis is always placed on service to the group, while in America the driving motive of education seems to be personal advancement. This contrast is strikingly shown in the graduation exercises in the higher institutions of the two countries. In the United States the completion of a special course of study is commonly celebrated by extending congratulations to the individual on his past achievements and on the opportunities which lie ahead: In Soviet Russia, the corresponding circumstance is made an occasion for felicitating society on the number of trained persons added to its staff. Individual success is completely subordinated to the ideal of serving the state and through the state the working class."

Throughout the literature on the New Russia there is an insistance on the peculiar relationship of social planning and curriculum in the Soviet schools. In Krupskaya's own Program we find the demand that "The school must develop in children the habit of studying and working in groups. . . . . The collective principle is both the point of departure and the final aim of every educational process. . . . . Except through the collective organization of the children there is no social education. . . .This principle is its base, its essence, its content."

What of Tests?

With this ideal of collective study and work, how do the schools of Soviet Russia handle tests and examinations? Among the "peculiarities of the unified labor school," described by Lucy L. W. Wilson in *The New Schools of New Russia,* "there are no examinations for admission nor for promotions. The latter depend upon the quality of the year's work judged by the collective work (thesis, model, whatever the culmination may be) of the group of which the individual student is a part."

On the subject of school marks, Albert P. Pinkevitch, writing of the basic principles of *The New Education in the Soviet Republic,* is no less emphatic.

"All the six forms of testing which we employ are at the same time instruments of self-discipline and self-testing." But "school marks" Dr. Pinkevitch considers "the scourge of the old and to some extent of the new school."

"We of course demand that 'marks' be rooted out utterly. They enervate, frighten, and suppress the self-activity of the pupil. They bring discord into the personality of the child, offer wide scope to the exercise of arbitrary power by the teacher, and give a sort of legal sanction to pedagogical formalism. The substitution for the traditional marks of the words *satisfactory* and *very satisfactory* does not meet our criticism."

Social Inheritance

The "competitive instinct" is regarded by Dr. Pinkevitch as inherent in human kind:

"Man is a gregarious animal and social impulses play a tremendous role in his life. . . . Sociability and solidarity, competition and envy. . . . and many others are to some extent bound with these instincts." Nevertheless, he believes that these must be dealt with as "negative" and hence not productive of socially useful ends.

He says: "With all their diversity the manifestations of the social instinct can be arbitrarily brought together under two categories. They are either positive or negative in tendency. In the first group we place those reflexes and feelings which have as their basis an instinctive impulse toward some form of mutual life activity for two or more individuals; in the second we include those reflexes and feelings which have as their basis an impulse toward self-advancement. In each case of course the impulse should be broadly interpreted in terms of the life, not of a given individual, but of all mankind. We should perhaps hasten to add that our terms 'positive' and 'negative' are not intended to carry a moral evaluation, but are to be understood in their biological sense. The positive manifestations embrace every instinctive impulse toward mutual activity . . . . . ; while the negative include all native tendencies toward competition, jealousy, envy, ambition, self-love, and self-advancement."

Education and the Five-Year-Plan

The most striking illustration of the close relationship between school work and social

(*Continued on page* 309)

Parents' Questions and Discussions

Whether or not we accept competition as a basic necessity in human living, the home must somehow provide a happy balance between the child's need of challenge and his opportunities for success. The quest of this balance is reflected in many of the questions raised in study groups.

A three-year-old is constantly trying to do things that he sees older children do. As a result he is frequently being disappointed in the result of his own efforts.

It is important to discover whether the challenge to meet the older children's standard derives from the child's own inner drive or from outer pressure, either from the situation itself or from the adults in his environment. Where there are older children a certain amount of challenge is inevitable and not necessarily harmful. In this case three possibilities suggest themselves as safeguards. It might be possible to guard the child somewhat against play with older children and to provide him with some playmates nearer to his age. He should be provided too, with enough interesting things that he *can* do, things that challenge him to the full limits of his present capacities but not beyond them. A third need is to be careful that we do not, by our own attitudes (however undefined) set a standard of expectancy for this child, so that he is challenged to "measure up" in order to feel secure in our love and esteem.

A teacher in a progressive school complains that a very bright child of six is more concerned with competitive interests than with materials and content—she is always trying to "beat" her classmates in all her activities.

Because of her superior intelligence, she is possibly not sufficiently stimulated by the content of the group's work. It may be that she needs a richer program of work or the stimulation of working with older children whose interests and abilities would constitute more of a challenge to her. Perhaps she may be forced to "beat" because they do not accept her, for some reason, as a playmate or in the cooperative work of the group. Or she may be reflecting an environment where activities are weighed purely on their competitive evaluation and not on their intrinsic worth.

What can be done about young children's competitive spirit in comparing home situations?—"My father is taller than yours", "We have a better car than you have."

These rivalries, which often seem amusing to the adult, may be nothing more than a kind of game in which only one may be expressing an inner need, while the others respond in fun. They are not likely to cause real distress to the child who is otherwise secure in his family relationships. To fortify them against these comparisons most children need only to be helped to evaluate—and to count—their blessings. But if they are fraught with heartache for the less favored child, there is nothing that we can do directly. We must rather find out what makes the child feel inadequate and build up, so far as circumstances permit, his security in himself and his surroundings.

Two sisters, nine and eleven, are constantly rivaling one another in their possessions. To avoid their quarreling the parents never give anything to one without giving its counterpart to the other. Is this wise?

Aside from the evident wastefulness of duplicating possessions, this system would seem to allow of no training in the art of sharing and cooperation. The real basis of the quarreling is not these "things" to which it attaches itself, but possibly some more deep seated feelings of rivalry from which one or both may be suffering. It is this rather than the quarreling that must be dealt with.

A boy of ten who is exceptionally bright is in a class of twelve-year-olds with whom he is intellectually well able to compete. But on the ball-ground he is rarely invited into his classmates' games, being hopelessly unequal to them in athletic skill.

It is unfair to place this boy in a situation where he must compete with children so much older than himself. Where there is so great a disparity in mental age a special effort should be made to

separate his play from his scholastic life, placing his social and play activities among boys of his own age and physical ability so that he may compete on equal terms.

What shall be done with a boy of twelve who does not want to play games but wants to read all the time?

Does he withdraw from *all* kinds of contact with his fellows or is his withdrawal confined to competitive games and physical encounters? Is his reading satisfying a legitimate interest or does it mask a need for withdrawing from contacts which he is unable to meet?

We have to allow for the fact, too, that some natures are more sensitive than others to physical contact, dreading the rough handling that is inherent in boys' games. It is worse than useless to challenge such a boy to "be like other boys." Rather we can help him find other forms of competition in work or play.

If, however, the withdrawal is general and seems to apply in all his social contacts, we have to seek further to discover what difficulties this boy is having with himself, in order to help him to better ways of adjustment than withdrawal offers.

A parent is very conscious that her two children are of very unequal mental equipment. How can she so manage the family life that these inequalities will not lead to jealousies and possible disasters to one or the other?

To manage this kind of situation requires much skill and understanding. It requires also a full acceptance on the part of the parents of the less favored child. Parents can do much to help the children appreciate and value each other, and find real pleasure each in the other's qualities and abilities no matter how different these may be.

If a child naturally lacks ability in a given subject and still has to take that subject in school, how can we avoid making him overconcerned about his inadequacy?

We could not, even if we would, keep him from realizing his deficiency; but we can, perhaps, help him to accept this disability as a fact and not a calamity. We can help him to see that not many of us can excel in all fields—that we differ widely in our abilities and that a contribution in one field is as valid as in another. This is not to say that he need not be urged and helped to his best efforts in the subject which he finds difficult. But, with the school's cooperation, the standard to be striven for should be his own best performance rather than the achievements of contemporaries perhaps more gifted than he. If the subject is one in which he is required to "pass" in order to maintain his grade, he should be given all possible help to enable him to do so.

A girl of thirteen realizes keenly that she has neither the intellectual brilliance nor the social charm for which her family (particularly her grandmother and mother) have been noted. How can she be helped to accept and adjust herself to this situation?

Primarily such a child needs to feel secure in her family's love and acceptance of her. In addition to this she needs opportunity and direction for developing her own abilities and interests to the full, and for evaluating her own potential contributions in relation to the family life and the community. The discovery and development of some particular talent or special ability would probably be satisfying in itself. She might be encouraged to follow some definite line of interest which would bring her into broader contacts —some kind of work where effort, interest and dependability are demanded and valued more than brilliance or charm.

What can be done with a child who cannot stand defeat?

There are two types of children who have this difficulty: first, the child who has been overindulged, the so-called "spoiled" child whose efforts have always been met with disproportionate praise and adulation; and second, the child who is already competing unsuccessfully in a situation in which he feels insecure, who feels his position in the family group threatened by an older or more favored child and who cannot tolerate his position of inferiority. In either case the child needs intelligent and understanding help in adjusting to his social world. The child of the first type needs to be given, preferably by his parents, some insight into his situation and its causes. Along with this he needs opportunities for valid successes along certain lines, but he needs also progressively to be challenged with things in which success is not too easy. He needs to learn real values. The child of the other type needs above all to be freed from all feeling of competition with others of the family. In every possible way he needs to be reassured concerning his security in the family constellation.

Books

Selecting Books for Parents and Teachers

"I feel so blank," says the very young mother on her first introduction to a study group, "I'd like *something* to go on, before I join. Are there any books for beginners like me?"

"I want information," says the experienced group leader, "on the relationship of fathers to their children among primitive people as compared to those in our own industrial communities. Are there any books here that will help me?"

To both we reply, *are there books?* We who work on the Bibliography Committee of the Child Study Association might rather ask, are there stars in heaven? Books there are, books on every branch of child study, books on every science and art directly or remotely connected with children, books on the normal child, books on the abnormal child, books on schools, books on play, books on boys, books on girls, easy books, difficult books, popular books, technical books, different books and indifferent books. There is the rub, there *are* indifferent books, and unsatisfactory books, and books which may be misleading or harmful, and many more which are valueless.

Although we may theoretically believe in reading anything or everything with a critical mind, and forming one's own opinion, the present enormous output of literature on every subject connected with the child makes it a physical impossibility for any one person to read all that is written. Whether we desire it or not, someone must help us with our selection. Shall we allow ourselves to be guided by our acquaintance who cries: "Oh, you must read so and so, it is simply wonderful!" or by the saleslady who happens to be at the book counter of our favorite department store? Most of us would prefer a safer guide, and it is to fulfill this function that the Bibliography Committee of the Child Study Association has been working for the past seventeen years. This committee has evolved as the parents' need has arisen, and side by side with the increase in the output of books. Starting years ago for informal discussion of current books by six or seven members of the then Federation for Child Study, the Committee has by this time increased to include no less than thirty persons, all of them active workers in the Child Study Association. Our qualifications are diverse, since our ranks include such professions as psychology, biology, physiology and pedagogy, as well as parent educators and mothers themselves. Most of our members are mothers, but not all; some have young families, others are grandmothers, some are conservative, others radical; in fact, we represent almost as many shades of interest in child study as there are members.

Besides these active members we have a list of expert consultants in the fields of science pertinent to our interest, whose opinion we can obtain in cases where we feel more technical knowledge is desirable.

Thus equipped, we engage in our never ending task of evaluating the mass of literature presented for our investigations. Each book is read and reported on in writing by several members of the Committee, sometimes by two members only if the decision is undoubted, but in the large majority of instances by at least three and often by four, five or six persons. We are bound by no formalities; our one aim is to find out whether the book will be helpful to parent or teacher.

The outcome of our work at the end of each year is the compilation of our annual *Selected List of Books for Parents and Teachers.*

What Parents—Past and Present—Read

WITHIN a few weeks the Committee will publish the sixth revised edition of this book list, and will bring to a close its seventeenth year of work. But long before 1914, when the first published list appeared, books had played an important part in the work of the Child Study Association; in fact, a library was founded as long ago as 1897. Its initiation was recorded in the minutes of a meeting held on March 4 of that year, when the secretary was instructed to purchase the following books: Quick's *Educational Reformer,* Preyer's *The Senses and the Will,* Preyer's *The Development of the Intellect,* and Sully's *Studies of Childhood.* Even earlier than this, between the years 1890 and 1897, many other standard works were read and discussed, including writings by Rousseau, Locke, Spencer, Ruskin, Froebel and Pestalozzi. Other books mentioned are Uffelmann's *Domestic Hygiene of the Child,* and Adler's *Moral Instruction of Children,* a book which still retains an honored place on the list.

When the 1931 revision takes final shape, it will contain upward of five hundred books—and this in

spite of the rigorous pruning and weeding that we have been engaged in all spring. Contrast this with the forty-nine books on the 1914 list, and you will have some measure of the lengths to which parent education literature has grown. That it has grown in breadth as well is evidenced by the fact that against the five headings of 1914 we now have fifteen. Of that first forty-nine books, the largest number (nineteen) were classified under Child Study, eight were listed under Physical Care of Mother and Child, seven under Philosophy of Education, four on Eugenics and Heredity, and eleven in a section of Fiction and Biography dealing with child life.

In the five years before the next list was published in 1919, there were added five new groupings: Sex Education, Play and Recreation, the Unadjusted Child, Adolescence, and Fiction and Biography dealing with adolescence. This was the post-war period when the adolescent was beginning to be thought of as a menace to the community, and it is interesting to note that the majority of these additional groups of books deal with this problem and related problems in one form or other. The community sense was awakening. All these groups contain some books which were written before 1914 and might therefore have been included in the 1914 list.

By 1927, the total number of books had reached 415, but the striking point is not so much the total increase as it is the groupings where that increase is concentrated. Books on psychology and on education leaped ahead most rapidly. Sections on child study, physical care, sex education and the unadjusted child had all increased more rapidly than before, and other groups showed a steady rise. But only two books on adolescence were added in five years, in spite of increasing popular interest.

Increasing Scope

New sections on family relationships and vocational guidance point to the way our interest in the child has been leading us to study not only the relation of the child to the parents, but his relation to all the members of the family, of the parents to each other, and of the child to the community. The section on psychology has been enlarged to include sociology as it affects the child.

In another section—Religion and Ethics—added in 1928, we are in 1931 including Philosophy. The need for such books has been brought to our notice from very many sources; undoubtedly parents and the public are feeling acutely the need of help in the direction of character education in all its aspects. Religion and religious education have perhaps been more conspicuously to the fore this year and have certainly aroused more discussion than any other.

Other significant additions are included in the appendix of specialized reading, comprising books which are of outstanding merit, but less closely allied with the general needs of parents. Some of these books are very technical, some are discussions of philosophical problems, some are purely statistical, but all have value to certain of our readers who wish to widen the scope of their interests.

Background Books

For lay people a still more interesting development includes what we call, among ourselves, "background books." These are not actually grouped together, for they are united by a point of view rather than by content. What we think of in this connection are such books as Lynd's *Middletown*, Lippmann's *A Preface to Morals*, or Boeckel's *The Turn Toward Peace*. We feel that such books as these have a very real place in the literature of parent education, but it is a parent education conceived in ever broader terms.

The grouping of the fifty-one books accepted for the current year reflects the variety of interests. Education has tied Psychology for the lead with eight each; Child Study and Religion, Ethics and Philosophy share second place with six apiece; Biology and Anthropology, Sociology and Mental Hygiene each have three; while two of the most discussed of topics—Sex and Adolescence—have, strangely enough, only one addition each. Seven miscellaneous titles complete the count.

With the completion of this year's work, we have consciously accepted the functioning of the Committee in a new role. Where, in the early days, its task was to hunt out books which might be used by parents, today a large part of its job is to weed out of the books that are offered, those that parents really need and want to read. Although this has been going on for sometime, our pruning of old lists has made us particularly aware of it. Then, too, paradox as it may seem, the more books we have, the fewer we choose—in 1931 only fifty-one, as compared to fifty-five in 1930 and to the still larger gains in earlier years. Of course it is actually a phenomenon which explains itself—the greater our riches, the more selective we must become. This is now definitely a policy. Books are not kept upon the list simply because they are well enough in their way; nor will they be added. To pass the acid test of acceptance, they must have convinced two or more

of the experienced Committee members that they have something definite to say which parents want and need to hear.

With considerably more books on the list of rejection than acceptance, it is only fair to say a few words about them, particularly as they fall under several distinct categories. There are, first, those which, though not harmful, are of no special merit, or contain material found in better form in books already on our list. Others, valuable solely as reference books to students, do not seem to us to warrant inclusion in a list for parents, but are kept on the library shelves. Then of course there are books, and alas! an increasing number, of which we disapprove entirely or in large part, as being either completely irrelevant, valueless or actually harmful. These we reject completely.

Choosing the right book for the right need at the right time need not be emphasized further to those who have learned how books may become an essential part of one's total experience in living. But books have the inestimable advantage of being flexible, easily adapted to many needs and a variety of situations. They can be read at home, which even in these modern days is an advantage to some mothers; one can regulate the kind and amount to fit one's own needs. Furthermore, books often form a very subtle method for educating recalcitrant adults in the family; father, aunts and grandmothers will dip into a judiciously placed volume, and though they may jeer, some point now and then strikes home. And finally, books annihilate time and space, and give us wisdom from other centuries and other lands. These are only a few of the values which we hope others will find and will share with us through the 1931 list.

ENID OPPENHEIMER, *Chairman*
Parents' Bibliography Committee,
Child Study Association of America.

New Nature Books For Children

THE task of selecting nature books suitable for children is not always a simple one. There are naturalist-authors who, because they know so much about the subject of which they write, crowd their stories with more information than the young reader can digest; others make so great an effort to make information interesting that they pad and sugar-coat the simple facts out of all perspective; and still others, in their efforts to simplify technical material, either talk down to their young readers or else omit so much as to make the remainder confusing. It is always an occasion for rejoicing, therefore, when we find among nature writers an author who not only educates us directly and simply, but in addition writes a fascinating story with informational material as its subject.

Such an author is Wilfrid Bronson, who last year gave us *Fingerfins,* wherein he made thrilling for us the life story of one tiny fish. In his new book, *Paddlewings,* Mr. Bronson undertakes to tell the life story of the penguin, already endeared to children wherever the Byrd Expedition pictures are shown. The story begins with a geological hypothesis concerning the formation of the Galápagos Islands, the home of Paddlewings and his neighbors. This introductory part of the story may be somewhat difficult for an eight-year-old, who can, nevertheless, well understand the rest of the thrilling tale, of Paddlewings' life from the moment he breaks through his shell and takes his first exhilarating breath until he learns to walk and hunt his own food. Mr. Bronson is primarily an artist, and his vivid drawings enhance the text. His keen interest and delicious sense of humor ideally equip him to interpret for children the nature information acquired in expeditions on which he has travelled with naturalists. *Paddlewings* is a fascinating book with a real human interest element, though at no time does the author resort to personifying his bird hero. And his penguin parents, for all their parental devotion, behave only as penguins should.

For straight nature information, clearly and simply presented, we have two excellent new books. *Glimpses of Familiar Birds,* by William H. Carr, is a handy volume to take along to the country. It contains beautiful illustrations of seventy-two birds most frequently seen east of the Rockies. The descriptions are short and simple and are adjacent to the illustrations. Below each picture are

several blank lines for the user's personal notes.

Nature Rambles, by Oliver P. Medsger, describes all that one might see on a walk through the woods or in the country in spring: common plants, flowers, insects, birds and animals. It is beautifully illustrated and is an invitation to closer acquaintance with all natural phenomena. Although not complete as a reference book, it is nevertheless, valuable for that purpose.

Summer—Under the Pig-nut Tree, by Berta and Elmer Hader, is the second of a series of nature story books by these beloved writers for children. It is a whimsical story, charmingly illustrated, about an elf and his adventures in insect land. The caterpillar, acting as his guide and informer, tells him many interesting facts about ants, glow worms and other familiar insects. Much nature information is thus presented in a gay and casual manner.

For more specific nature study, a series of little pamphlets on trees and shrubs, flowering plants, birds and their nests, earth and rocks, have recently been prepared and published by the Coordinating Council of Nature Activities. Like the other publications of the Council, these are invaluable for intensified study, and especially useful in school, camp or club nature work.

Tales of the First Animals, by Edith B. Walker, in collaboration with Charles C. Mook, is a brief survey of present knowledge of the beginnings of life and the development of the prehistoric world, its geological formation and its plant and animal life. Every chapter treats of a particular stage in evolution. The material is presented in a straightforward factual style, making its appeal not so much to the general reader as to the child (of ten or over) who is especially interested to inquire into this field of knowledge. It might well be used also by the parent who seeks information with which to answer the younger child's questions.

ROSE ENTENBERG

Glimpses of Familiar Birds.
By William H. Carr. Sam'l Gabriel Sons & Co. 157 *pp.* $1.50

Nature Rambles: Spring.
By Oliver P. Medsger. Frederick Warne & Co. 160 *pp.* $2.00

Paddlewings.
By Wilfrid S. Bronson. The Macmillan Co. 106 *pp.* $2.00

Summer—Under the Pig-nut Tree.
By Berta and Elmer Hader. Alfred A. Knopf. 64 *pp.* $1.25

Tales of the First Animals.
By Edith B. Walker, in collaboration with Charles C. Mook Farrar & Rinehart. 120 *pp.* $1.50

Camping and Competition

JOSHUA LIEBERMAN

(*Continued from page* 294)

has a way of becoming the sole objective. We may ask what is the effect of a competitive program on the emotional life of the individual camper? What does it mean to him to be called a "sinker" until he learns to swim? What place does he find in the camp group if his feelings of inferiority prevent him from actively competing for prizes? What are the effects of failure to win a prize? Even if we grant that a prize has some value for a winner, what of the loser? For every winner there must be many losers. The anguish that accompanies failure to make a team—the emotional let-down that results from failure to obtain a much coveted prize—the conviction of inferiority that inevitably follows—all these must be taken into consideration.

A few children in each group who have a satisfactory relationship to life and are well adjusted individuals seem to meet competitive situations quite well. Most children, however, find it a great trial. For them life is already too competitive. It is difficult not to compare oneself with one's fellows, sisters, brothers or classmates. And this comparison somehow often favors the other fellow.

"Jimmy is a better athlete."

"Bob gets on more easily with the crowd."

"Laura can make all kinds of things."

"Grace is always popular."

"Dick is a better fighter."

All of this is very distressing, and serves to intensify feelings of inferiority. Does a competitive camp environment help these children work out their problems or does it increase them?

Those who cannot successfully compete in groups are only further handicapped by artificial pressure in that direction. They have to be helped to a realization of their own worth through opportunities for achievement in fields suited to their individual capacities. Artificially stimulated competition and an adult standard of worthiness add considerably to the burden these children have to carry.

Even on children who are well balanced emotionally, the strain and overstimulation of life in a community dominated by a competitive spirit must have a detrimental effect. The National Safety Council made a study of health in over one hundred camps in the Summer of 1929, and found that the peak of camp illness was reached in the last three weeks of the camp season, when the children would naturally

(*Continued on page* 308)

News and Notes

In the year's closing issue of CHILD STUDY, the Child Study Association of America takes the opportunity of calling attention to some of its activities which may not otherwise come to the notice of those who know the Association most intimately through the pages of the magazine. The projects conducted by the Field Work Committee and the Summer Play Schools involve intensive work along certain lines. Study group programs are of value not only to those who are in the Metropolitan Area and can take active part in the work at Headquarters, but to other groups whose interests are similar and may therefore derive certain benefits from them. The larger meetings of the Association bring together, with parents and parent educators, specialists and experts in child study and in many related fields.

Child Study Association Activities

Interrelationships within the family group; The effect of social and economic changes upon man and woman in the marriage relation; How college is meeting social and economic changes—these three topics chosen for the annual all-day conference of the Child Study Association to be held on October 19 at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York City, are indicative of the broad scope of parent education today. In planning its work for the coming year the Child Study Association is not only looking forward to an increasingly broader outlook but is also bringing to concrete problems of child training the very best which science and experience has to offer parents. Two symposia—on Discipline and on Sex Education from the point of view of the parents' preparation—will bring together parents and specialists in discussions of this kind. Such opportunities for many sided contributions have proved of great help and interest in the past, and it is expected that additional meetings on similar topics will develop in the course of the winter.

Study Groups for 1931-32

The Study Group Department of the Child Study Association is now engaged in formulating plans for the season of 1931-32. In addition to new groups being formed at Headquarters, the present members will have an opportunity to continue their study under the same leadership.

The registration for the Headquarters Groups during the past year was larger than ever before, indicating a real demand on the part of parents for group work. There is also a growing belief that parent education is a matter of consecutive meetings devoted to study as opposed to disconnected approaches from various angles. This is evidenced by the calls upon the Speakers Bureau for series of talks rather than isolated lectures on child study topics, and the increased interest in round-table and symposium conferences this year.

A special series of five meetings on sex education was given this spring under the leadership of Mrs. Cécile Pilpel, Director of Study Groups. This new project was undertaken in response to numerous requests to supplement the regular study with special emphasis on the question of the sex education of the child. There was a registration of sixty for this series, with an average of fifty-six.

Lectures and Conferences

To supplement the work done in Headquarters Study Groups, the regular program of lectures and conferences, of which the symposia mentioned above will be a part, are to be continued, with possibly a new series of evening lectures on Religious Education. The special committees of the Association, such as those on Toys, Books, Art and Music, will have exhibits on an increasingly larger scale. While the contribution of these committees has always constituted a distinctive feature of the Association's work, the formation of two new committees—on Play and Playthings and on Nature Study—indicates the growing need for them.

Parent Education Among Negroes

The Inter-Community Child Study Committee, whose purpose is to extend parent education among Negroes, held its third annual conference at Headquarters of the Child Study Association on May 23. Among the topics presented by speakers of prominence were "A Study of Family Life," "Sex Education in a Child Study Program," "Tangles in Parent-Child Relationships," "How Child

Study Groups Help Parents" and "The Value of Child Study to the Church." Delegates from Baltimore, Englewood, Montclair, New York and Washington branches took part in this stimulating program of cooperation between the two groups.

The Committee came into being in 1929 as a result of several years of intensive child study work in Harlem under the supervision of Miss Margaret J. Quilliard, Director of Field Work, who recently visited Bennett College for Women, North Carolina, at the invitation of President David D. Jones. Miss Quilliard addressed the student body on the function of training in child study and parent education, both as an individual asset and a possible vocational activity. She also spoke to the members of the Home Making Institute, which was being held under the direction of Miss Flemmie Kittrell, and to a group of city and county teachers especially invited for the occasion by President Jones. The interest in child study and parent education indicates new developments along these lines in the near future at Bennett, where a progressive type of educational work is being carried on with the students. The same interest is also at work elsewhere. At the Palmer Memorial School at Sedalia, visited at the invitation of Mrs. Charlotte Hawkins Brown, both the school buildings and the class work evidence a modern point of view. At the North Carolina College for Negroes at Durham, Dr. J. E. Shepard re-arranged classes in order that faculty and students might listen to a talk by Miss Quilliard on parent education. The interest of not only Dr. and Mrs. Shepard but of the whole group, which included many mothers, encourages the hope that further observation of the work of the College may be carried on.

Fifth Annual Play School Conference

The Summer Play Schools Committee of the Child Study Association held its annual conference at Fieldston School, New York, on May 23. After a brief introductory speech on the work of the Committee, by its chairman, Mrs. Fred M. Stein, the morning session was turned over to Henry M. Busch, Assistant Director of the Cleveland College of Western Reserve University, who spoke on the "Wider Aspects of the Summer Vacation." Mrs. Daphne Drake, Acting President of the Child Study Association, and Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg, the Director, presided as chairmen. In the afternoon James S. Tippett, Dean of the Faculty of the Avon School in Connecticut, discussed "Creative Expression Through the Use of Words."

The Summer Play Schools

Although the Summer Play Schools are open only during July and August, the Summer Play Schools Committee of the Child Study Association is actively engaging in its educational promotion the year round. By means of several series of round-table discussions, conferences and study group meetings, close contact is kept with representatives of governing boards, professional workers and parents of the children.

Plans are now under way for eighteen Summer Play Schools in New York City, three of which are new, and two in Cleveland. In New York City the Board of Health has increased its assistance in the medical examination program, and the Board of Education has again supplied teacher service, supplies and equipment and the use of public schools wherever needed.

The extension work made possible by the Julius Rosenwald Fund has centered in Chicago, where the Superintendent of Schools has initiated a plan for an all-day program based on modern educational philosophy, with year-round follow up into home and community. The experiment will be one in adult education for all the professional workers coming in contact with the school child, as well as one in summer vacation education.

In all the plans for program activities there is a concern for a wider use of the out-of-doors. Three schools have cooperated in a joint project, under an experienced teacher, whereby through week-end trips in spring and fall, added to one day weekly during the summer, their children will experience the entire cycle of farm production. To the same place, situated on the northern outskirts of the city, one of the schools sends ten of its children to camp for July, and ten for August. Still another school alternates all its children with their teachers between play school and a camp on the Connecticut shores for a month at a time.

Even in the city some space will be found for gardening and for pets of all kinds. The impetus given to the work in preceding years through the contributions of the Junior Summer Play Schools Committee will undoubtedly result in an increase of this type of experience on every program.

In addition to the natural sciences, there will be home-making, fine and industrial arts, music, rhythms and games. These are not taught as separate "subjects," but are integrated into units of work rich in opportunities for creative expression. These are based on the children's interests as they develop through their own experiences, furnished in large part by exploration trips around their own

communities, or to docks and markets further afield. A hot noon luncheon, followed by tooth brushing and an hour's rest, with milk served in the afternoon, affords ample opportunity for building desirable health attitudes and for social adjustment.

The groups are organized co-educationally, and have the same leader to guide and share their experiences throughout the summer. They are small enough to allow for individual attention toward the social and personality adjustment which is the objective of the schools. Such summer work can serve not only the children, but as a laboratory for developing parental understanding of the child-training principles upon which it is based. Perhaps best of all it can serve as a spring board from which one can "take-off" to a continuation throughout the succeeding months, giving promise that each season's efforts will make a lasting contribution to an ever growing movement.

Alice in Blunderland

Members of study groups of the Child Study Association, and their friends, had tea on board the S. S. California on May 8th. In the course of the afternoon they enjoyed an imaginary journey—*"Alice in Blunderland."* Members of the staff of the Association impersonated the familiar figures of *Alice* from the child study point of view and suggested how parents might look "through the Looking-Glass." The tea was for the benefit of the Association, and was made possible through the courtesy of the Panama Pacific Line and the Times Square Travel Bureau.

Industrial Arts Service

The Industrial Arts Cooperative Service is offering eleven short courses of special interest to parents, teachers, camp and club leaders, at their new studio, 125 West 75th Street, New York City. Among these, the most helpful perhaps, is a series of six lessons on the summer activities for children. By means of their work with clay, paints, crayons, weaving and nature materials, parents are learning to make the summer vacation a valuable part of their children's education. Other courses include a study of aviation and the construction of models, practical electricity, camp photography and pottery, sculpture, etching and dyeing. The experienced teachers in charge are concentrating on the practical nature of their subject and allowing as much time as possible for laboratory work. These courses are entirely in keeping with the purpose—to improve and facilitate the practice of education in its larger aspects—which has been maintained by the service since it was originally organized in 1924 as a non-profit making professional association.

World Federation Conference

The World Federation of Education Associations will hold its Fifth Congress at Denver, Colorado, from July 27 to August 1. The proposed plan will allow for many departmental discussion groups, as well as repeated occasions for the Congress to meet in a body to discuss the promotion of international goodwill through business, diplomacy, the press, labor, education, travel and study. In addition the Congress expects to initiate for elementary, secondary and normal schools and institutions of university rank practical programs of education, which will include objectives, materials and methods for the development of international understanding and cooperation.

From a world-wide merger of more than one hundred educational organizations, which grew out of the National Education Association conference in 1923, the Federation has expanded into a great World University with about twenty well defined departments. Edinburgh in 1925, Toronto in 1926 and Geneva in 1929 have seen the Federation well on its way to permanence and usefulness, and the plans for the Denver Congress indicate an active continuation of this growth.

American Association for Adult Education

The sixth annual meeting of the American Association for Adult Education, which was held at the New School for Social Research, New York City, from May 18 to 21, will be reviewed more fully in the September issue of CHILD STUDY, with emphasis on its significance in relation to parent education.

Commonwealth Fund Report

The Twelfth Annual Report of the Commonwealth Fund reviews the operations of the Fund during the past year. Over two million dollars have been expended around three major centers of interest—public health, mental hygiene and British-American relations—in addition to the series of studies on legal research and special grants for the support of projects carried on under independent auspices. Transition, intensive development of old and new enterprises, and revaluation of underlying principles characterize the work.

The public health activities include the first year of a new program to provide better health service

for rural districts, in the conduct of which the Fund is cooperating with state departments of health; the progress of health activities in six communities where rural hospitals have been built with money supplied jointly by the local community and the Fund; and the results of a child health program which was completed during the year when the last of four demonstrations finished its work.

In the field of mental hygiene the Report covers the first year's work of the Child Guidance Clinic established by the Fund in London. Continued support has been given to the Institute for Child Guidance in New York which is endeavoring to meet the great need for a larger well trained personnel in this field. The publication of seven new books will go far toward making the work of the Commonwealth Fund better known.

The National Geographic Society

Rural schools will find of special interest two types of material which may be obtained at nominal cost from the School Service Department of the National Geographic Society. Contributing to the enlivened teaching of geography, The Society recently announced it will send packets of ten different copies of the *National Geographic Magazine* to rural schools only.

The Geographic is edited from the standpoint of permanent value of its contents. Hence ten copies of the magazine, containing some thirty-five authoritative and interesting articles on lands, peoples and explorations all over the world, and more than a thousand illustrations, many of them in color, form the nucleus of a working geography library.

Progressive Education in Mexico

The most important educational movement in Mexico today is the steadily increasing influence of its rural schools in the life of the community. As contrasted to the urban type which seems indifferent to the general unrest of the times, the rural school is entirely devoted to the community. It teaches the three R's, but the fundamental significance is the social function it performs. The school assumes the responsibility for the solution of such problems as ignorance, misery, apathy, and for the control of sanitation and water distribution. It also establishes health clinics, operates a postal service, opens roads, arranges parks and gardens, and conducts recreational centers. In addition it provides economic education for the inhabitants. Little wonder the progressives of Mexico feel that their country's growth in the future lies in this movement.

For 1931-32

CHILD STUDY

announces—

SOME MONTHLY TOPICS

Measuring Children's Capacities

Routines and Responsibilities

The Child's Reading

Old Prescriptions and New Principles

Discipline and Personality

AMONG THE CONTRIBUTORS

Lewis M. Terman
Goodwin Watson
Joseph K. Hart
Fritz Wittels
Hughes Mearns
Floyd Dell
Leo Stein
C. M. Hincks
Margaret Mead
Irene Lewisohn

A NEW STUDY GROUP DEPARTMENT

Parents Questions and Discussions have proved of such special value both to individual parents and to groups that they have been made the nucleus of a new Study Group Department. In addition to the questions, this will include a study outline of the issue of CHILD STUDY and a bibliography. The department will be edited by Josette Frank under the supervision of Cécile Pilpel, Director of Study Groups.

ACCREDITED ADVERTISING

CHILD STUDY advertisers are accredited by the Child Study Association of America. These schools, camps, and groups are developing along the lines of progressive education. The books, toys, and other products are also carefully selected. *Use CHILD STUDY advertising. It offers an unusually discriminating service.*

In the Magazines

After-College Blues. By Mabel Barbee Lee. The Woman's Journal, May 1931.

This article points out the difficulties that college graduates who are not trained for a specific occupation face in finding a job.

Education and International Understanding. By Harold Rugg. Progressive Education, April 1931.

Dr. Rugg traces the increase of chauvanism and nationalism in Western civilization, and shows how our systems of education have helped to erect these barriers to international understanding. Nationalistic text-books and teachers lacking a world view are in part responsible. Dr. Rugg urges very definite reforms and gives concrete suggestions for their realization.

Home-Taught Fears. Bq Albert E. Wiggam. The Reader's Digest, June 1931. Condensed from Better Homes and Gardens, April 1931.

The attitude between husband and wife, of sisters and brothers toward each other, and of parents toward children Dr. Wiggam considers the three phases of home life which help to build emotional habits in children. While these home attitudes may be the most constructive influence in a child's life, they often have just the opposite effect, and actually teach them to be afraid, not only of specific things, but of life itself.

How to Give Children an International Outlook. By Evelyn Wrench. The New Era, April 1931.

Definite suggestions are given in this article as to ways of "making children of the various nations in the world better acquainted."

The Mental Causes of Child Accidents. By Herbert J. Stack. Mental Hygiene, April 1931.

Factors other than ignorance of danger, such as love of adventure and absent-mindedness caused by worry or fatigue, are responsible for many accidents involving children.

The New Era, May 1931.

A series of articles on co-education appears in this issue. Among others, J. H. Badley, headmaster of the Bedales School, writes of "Co-education as Training for Living by Living," Lord Lytton tells of "The Difficulties of Co-Education in England," and a boy and girl who have recently graduated from co-educational schools, Bedales and Frensham Heights, give their views on the subject.

New Facts About Baby Feeding. By Icie G. Macy Parents' Magazine, June 1931.

This article tells of recent experiments undertaken to discover new formulas for baby feeding to supplement or take the place of mothers' milk. The article is especially encouraging for mothers of premature babies and mothers who cannot successfully nurse their children.

Playthings for Children. By Lois Hayden Meek. Delineator, May 1931.

Children's play needs and the kinds of toys for meeting those needs are discussed in this article.

Savage Masters of the Sea. By Margaret Mead. Safety Education, May 1931.

Dr. Mead describes the way in which the parents of New Guinea prepare their children to meet the conditions that primitive life imposes, and contrasts their methods of child training with our own.

Stuttering. By Smiley Blanton. Mental Hygiene, April 1931.

Various points of view as to the causes of stuttering are coordinated, and several methods of treatment are discussed and evaluated. The author feels that "an adequate treatment of stuttering must combine physical hygiene, mental hygiene and speech training in a unified and well rounded manner."

What Home Can Do for a Child. By Dorothy Canfield. McCall's Magaine, May 1931.

The place of the parent and the home in the development of the child is contrasted with that of the psychologist and the school.

What Shall I Be When I Grow Up? By Chester Milton Sanford. Child Welfare, May 1931.

Ways in which parents can help and hinder the child in his choice of a vocation.

When Children Grow Up. By Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg. Delineator, June 1931.

A discussion of the problems that come with adolescence and ways in which parents can anticipate and meet these problems.

The Family Center Summer Play School. By Lucy Retting. Childhood Education, June 1931.

This article describes the work carried on in one of the summer play schools in New York City. The value of such a project to the children who attend and to their parents is discussed.

Camping and Competition

(*Continued from page* 302)

be expected to be in the best physical condition. These findings were discussed by a representative of the National Safety Council with a group of forward-looking camp directors, and it was generally agreed that the tension and overstimulation of competitive camping were weighty factors in reducing the campers' vitality and resistance to disease.

This is no plea against the development of such qualities as skill, endurance, speed and capacity. These are all very desirable qualities. It is necessary, however, to recognize that each individual has to develop at his own pace.

In the conference referred to at the beginning of this article this question brought the following answers:

Points and prizes help to assure camp cleanliness. The campers will work hard to win the banner for their tent or cabin, and will do little under other circumstances.

Competition puts zest into activities. Campers enter into activities more readily and achieve more.

The campers have a goal to strive for. Conflict stimulates group interest.

Let Him Learn to Read Through Play!

HERE is a newly discovered method of teaching reading, so simple and natural that it is practically self-taught. The child does things that he likes to do, and as a result of the doing, learns to read! Any mother with the limited time at her disposal can furnish all the guidance that is needed.

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For the beginner the following is all the equipment that will be needed. The entire cost, $3.56, is less than the price of many a toy that is soon destroyed without leaving any permanent value.

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WORKBOOK to Peter and Peggy	.36
First Reader—ROUND THE YEAR	.64
WORKBOOK to Round the Year	.36
First Year Guide	1.80

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Prizes and awards are tangible signs of achievement. The campers are proud of them, they can take them home to show to parents and friends, and they therefore help to put the camp over.

If we discount the last point as unworthy of attention, we still have three important points to consider. There is no doubt that awards and prizes help to make routines more acceptable to children, or that they stimulate activity, and help to solidify and give purpose to camp groups. Can these or better effects be achieved through other and more constructive methods?

The experience of a small number of experimental and progressive camps over a period of more than twelve years indicates that zest in activities, eager and purposeful participation and a high standard of achievement can be obtained without artificial means. Even cleanliness, that supposed bugbear of childhood, is obtained without difficulty.

Not So Easy

THESE experimental and progressive camps have usually been small, and have been directed by people with experience in modern educational method. Their staffs, too, have consisted of more mature people than those of most camps, which employ college boys and girls. Large camps with fixed programs and immature staffs naturally must use those methods which simplify administration and assure mass results.

Competitive methods can be eliminated only if camping is reorganized on a creative activity basis. The usual camp program is set and predetermined by adults. The children's day is completely outlined in half-hour and hourly shifts, and they have very little choice, and rarely initiate activities. Under these circumstances it is only natural for the children to offer considerable resistance. Competitive stimuli were introduced and are retained in such programs chiefly to overcome this resistance. When we consider the degree of eager anticipation with which children come to camp, and the deep sources of interest and stimulation contained in even the usual campsite, we are bound to wonder at the failure on the part of camp directors to utilize the children's natural interests in activities and to obtain their cooperation without artificial means. The progressive camps have had little difficulty in obtaining the children's ready cooperation. Their activities are based on the children's needs, interests and capacities. Under these circumstances, competitive stimulus becomes unnecessary. The child's own interest is the incentive.

Competition in Soviet Schools

(*Continued from page* 296)

planning is to be found in a very modern school primer now in use in Russian schools, an English translation of which has recently appeared under the title *New Russia's Primer*. This is an impassioned exposition, for school children, of the Soviet Five-Year-Plan, with a plea for youth's cooperation in its fulfillment. From the point of view of the present discussion interest centers in its treatment of competitive planning as exemplified in American industry. With rare humor and penetration it presents a parable of hats, picturing the wastefulness of production under our competitive economic system. Significant, too, is its appeal to patriotism which, unlike the traditional appeal of the nationalistic school text-book "evokes those loyalties to the general welfare which have commonly been associated with war in the past." In this primer "conquest" is mentioned only in relation to the land's resources, "Conquerors of Their Own Country", "Conquest of Water and Wind."

What, then, does this primer offer as incentive to effort? Listing youth's contributions to the Five-Year-Plan, it lays down specific tasks to be done:

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"Herein lies your power."

Impressions of Soviet Russia.
By John Dewey. New Republic. 270 *pp.* 1929.

The New Education in the Soviet Republic.
By Albert P. Pinkevitch. The John Day Co. 402 *pp.* 1929.

New Russia's Primer.
By M. Ilin (Trans. by George S. Counts). *Houghton Mifflin Co.* 162 *pp.* 1931.

The New Schools of New Russia.
By Lucy L. W. Wilson. Vanguard Press. 230 *pp.* 1928.

The Soviet Challenge to America.
By George S. Counts. The John Day Co. 372 *pp.* 1931

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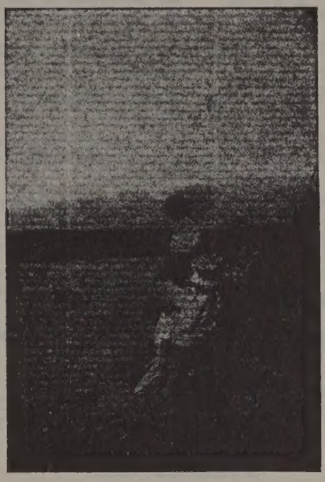

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